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ABSTRACT

This descriptive study attempted to determine if domestic travel affected the attitudes of high school seniors in seeing the educational value of travel. Surveys were administered to 325 high school seniors of 3 different high schools to assess students' attitudes. Results indicate high school seniors generally do not have a positive attitude toward travel as an educational tool. Results did appear to show a relationship between having travel experiences that were educationally motivated and forming positive attitudes toward travel as an educational tool. The results of this study, although not conclusive, offer many insights into student attitudes toward travel. Students value travel as an opportunity to experience something new and different but most have not made the connection between education and daily experiences. The study offers ideas for further research on the benefits of travel and recommends further research in the area of survey administration techniques. The survey instrument is included. Contains 17 references. (EH)

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THE EFFECTS OF DOMESTIC TRAVEL ON THE ATTITUDES OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS IN THE USA TOWARD TRAVEL AS AN EDUCATIONAL TOOL

MASTER'S PROJECT

Submitted to the School of Education,
University of Dayton, in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science in Educaiton

by

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WOOD, RALPH MERTON

A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF DOMESTIC TRAVEL ON THE ATTITUDES OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS IN THE USA TOWARD TRAVEL AS AN EDUCATIONAL TOOL (43 pp.), June, 1996.

Faculty Advisor: Roberta Weaver, Ed.D.

PROBLEM. Educational travel programs and numerous researchers have claimed that foreign travel provides students with educational benefits which cannot be offered in the traditional classroom environment. Research indicates that study abroad programs are more often attended by students with stronger economic backgrounds and more travel experience. Interestingly, no research focusing on the effects of domestic travel, which would be more accessible to students of lower economic status, were found in a literature search.

The purpose of this study was to determine if domestic travel affects the attitudes of high school seniors in the USA toward travel as an educational tool.

PROCEDURE. Surveys were administered to 325 high school seniors attending three different high schools in order to gather data on the students' attitudes. Surveys were administered by classroom teachers and returned to the researcher.

FINDINGS. Results of this study indicate that high school seniors do not, in general, have a positive attitude toward travel as an educational tool. The results did appear to show a relationship between having travel experiences that were educationally motivated and forming positive attitudes toward travel as an educational tool.

CONCLUSIONS AND/OR RECOMMENDATIONS. The results of this study, although not sufficient for forming solid conclusions, offer many insights into student attitudes toward travel. For the most part, students value travel as an opportunity to experience something new and different. Most students have not made the connection between their education and daily experiences. This study offers many ideas for further research on the benefits of travel. Also, research is recommended in the area of survey administration techniques.

Approved by:

Roberta Weaver
Official Advisor

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION 1

Purpose for the Study 1

Problem Statement 2

Assumptions 2

Limitations 3

Definition of Terms 3

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE 4

Characteristics of Educational Travel Programs 5

Cognitive Benefits of Educational Travel Programs 9

Affective Benefits of Educational Travel Programs 14

CHAPTER III: PROCEDURE 17

Subjects 17

Setting 17

Data Collection 18

Critique 20

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS 21

Presentation of Data 21

Discussion of Data 26

CHAPTER V: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS 36

Summary 36

Conclusions 36

Recommendations 37

REFERENCES 39

APPENDIX: SURVEY INSTRUMENT 41

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1: Ethnic Background and Gender 22

TABLE 2: Travel Experience 22

TABLE 3: Number of Students Who Had Traveled with Their Schools and Number of Times Reported Under Each Reason 23

TABLE 4: Subject Students Thought They Would Use During Travel..... 23

TABLE 5: Aspects of Travel Which Students Considered Exciting 24

TABLE 6: Students Who Would Like to Travel With Their Class or School..... 24

TABLE 7: Student Beliefs of Whether Travel Had Affected Their Lives 25

TABLE 8: Students Beliefs About Whether Travel Had Helped Them In School 25

TABLE 9: Travel Experience vs Perception of Travel's Effects on Education 26

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DEDICATION

I'd like to dedicate this project to my parents without whose love and example I would not have arrived at this point in my life. Also, to Giampietro Gasparin, C.S.J. and Giovanna Bortoloso, who challenged me to pursue a life worthy of the calling which I received from God, my almighty creator.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose for the Study

The number of travel programs organized and run by the educational community for students in the USA is quite large (Buss, 1986). Each program claims numerous educational benefits which allegedly cannot be obtained in the normal classroom environment (Rosenheck, 1988: Thomlison, 1991). Many of these claims have been substantiated by research on student achievement and attitudes (Hansel and Grove, 1986). In reviewing the research, this author was led to ask questions concerning the educational benefits of domestic travel-study programs.

One aspect of the research which caused concern on the part of the author was the apparent nonexistence of work focusing on domestic travel-study. Considering the rich diversity of history, culture, and geography of the United States, why has there been so little interest in the educational benefits of domestic travel? The lack of data in this area should have been motivation enough to research it, but it was not the only reason.

Since research shows that travel experiences are beneficial to students' academic achievement (Myers, 1988; Bein, 1988) and self concepts (Armstrong, 1984; Thomlison, 1991), this author believes that it is desirable to extend the opportunities for such experiences to as many students as possible. One obstacle to travel for many students is inability to meet the financial requirements of study abroad (Hembroff and Rusz, 1993). If domestic travel programs yield comparable benefits to foreign programs, then the opportunities to partake in those benefits become more widely available to students. Research needs to be done which will help educational institutions and parents understand the differences and interactions between foreign and domestic travel-study programs. This

will enable them (the institutions and parents) to make good decisions about what travel opportunities to offer and encourage.

Furthermore, a study of students at Michigan State University revealed that students who had traveled domestically were more likely to enroll in study abroad programs (Hembroff and Rusz, 1993). It might be inferred from this finding that if students were able to and encouraged to travel domestically during high school, they would be more likely to take advantage of the many benefits of study abroad during college or of personal travel abroad on their own. This inference needs to be investigated further.

Finally, several guidebooks and articles have been written to help schools organize and plan for travel-study programs. These guides show that planning for overseas travel requires more preparation than does domestic travel. If domestic travel provides comparable educational benefits to study abroad, perhaps high schools would be more inclined to plan such programs. Again, more information is needed before such analysis and comparison of benefits can be accomplished.

In light of these reasons for pursuing study of the educational effects of domestic travel, the author proposed a study. Realizing the complexity of an all-inclusive study of the benefits of domestic travel-study programs, the author chose to take only a small facet of the question into consideration. The remainder will have to be addressed by future research.

Problem Statement

The purpose of this study was to determine if domestic travel affects the attitudes of high school seniors in the USA toward travel as an educational tool.

Assumptions

In order to carry out this study, the researcher made several assumptions. First, it was assumed that responses to the study instrument were made truthfully. The second assumption was the validity of the instrument to measure the attitudes which it was

designed to measure. Finally, the assumption that the sample population was indeed representative of high school seniors in the United States.

Limitations

The design of this study led to several limitations. Due to the time and resources afforded to this study, all factors contributing to attitudes toward travel as an educational tool were not addressed. This could affect final results. Also, the subjects were all due to graduate from high school within two to three weeks of the survey administration. This may have caused them to approach the survey with low enthusiasm and seriousness, thus responding without considered thought. Due to time constraints, the survey was not administered by the author, this lead to an undesireably low return rate of less that 50%. The small sample size has put the statistical validity of the results into question and limited the generalizability of the results of this study.

Definition of Terms

Educational benefits refer to any results of an activity which improve student attitudes or behaviors toward education and/or increase academic achievement.

Domestic travel will be used to refer to any travel within the continental United States which takes a student from his or her day to day living environment.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Since ancient times, people have traveled to foreign lands to pursue education in a variety of fields. In the earliest times, these people went seeking the wisdom in specific subjects from the learned who were found only in specific cities. Today, students travel for different reasons. They need not travel to find people who know physics or law or theology. Rather, they are lured by the adventure of distant lands and by claims of a wide variety of benefits which supposedly cannot be obtained in the classrooms of their local schools and universities. The intent of this literature review is to bring together information regarding educational travel programs and participation. It is divided into three major section which focus on 1) the characteristics of educational travel programs, 2) the cognitive benefits of educational travel programs, and 3) the affective benefits of educational travel programs. The author believes that after reading this review, the audience will have a better understanding of what research on educational travel programs has been accomplished and what remains to be researched further.

Before beginning, the author would like to make a few comments on the literature which may help explain why specific examples are cited below. In searching for articles concerning educational travel it was discovered that no research had been accomplished concerning domestic travel programs: all of the research focused on study-abroad programs. Two anecdotal articles were found which discussed domestic travel as an educational tool, but neither was the result of a study. Of the literature cited, six dealt with undergraduate study-abroad programs, four dealt with elementary and high school educational travel programs, two focused on rural youth and exposure to other lifestyles, two were a guidebook, one was a parental how-to guide, and three were reviews of

research. Due to this breakdown, the author often discusses undergraduate programs in the literature reveiw. The author assumes that undergraduate programs offer similar learning opportunities as would high school programs. With this in mind, the author invites the reader to prepare for a thorough reveiw of literature related to education and travel.

Characteristics of Educational Travel Programs

Educational travel takes on a wide range of forms and offers a variety of learning experiences which are not available in the classroom environment. They can be as simple as a day trip to a museum or as involved as a year-long study abroad program. Because of this variety, it would be impossible in a work of this nature to describe all of the different aspects of each type of educational travel. Planning, expense, cross-cultural experience, parental involvement, and peer interaction are important characteristics discussed in the literature on educational travel and is described in the following paragraphs.

The necessity of detailed planning is characteristic of educational travel programs. Rosenheck (1988), in her article describing a week-long excursion of her 6th grade class to Florence, Italy, emphasized the many aspects requiring planning by teachers, administrators, students, and parents. She stated that "the teacher must help plan, examine, and select its [the program's] broad goals and specific objectives" (p. 344). She recommended that teachers visit the destination in order to plan how they will use the experience to meet goals and objectives as well as to gather information concerning practical matters. These can include details about accommodations, eating arrangements, transportation availability, business hours of different sites, weather considerations, and recreational activity availability. From Buss' guidebook (1986) for planning educational travel programs, it is noted that the option of hiring agencies which take care of many of these considerations for the school could be chosen. Rosenheck (1988) also discussed administrative responsibilities such as "funding, encouragement, clerical support, and released staff time for preparation" (p. 345). Other preparations include deciding who will go on the trip (students, parents, teachers, aides, etc.), getting necessary documentation

(passports, visas, shot records) and immunizations for foreign travel, fulfilling parental permission and release requirements, developing educational approaches and materials to be used, preparing for language differences in foreign countries, maintaining communication with home (students, parents, school staff), planning contingencies for illness and emergencies, accomplishing academic preparation of students, and executing organizational preparation of staff including assignment of duties and responsibilities. Parents take part in the preparation by obtaining and providing necessary documents, paying for some part of their child's participation, and even possible participation as chaperones and class aides. Students also must prepare by studying as directed by their teachers and following guidelines for packing and conduct.

Buss (1986) encapsulated this long listing of planning considerations into five recommendations for making

> an intelligent, informed selection of an academic travel abroad program:
>
> 1) Teachers must become familiar with the research concerning academic travel abroad.
> 2) Teachers must carefully examine program objectives, the nature of the program, participant screening and preparation, and program reputability.
> 3) Teachers must also consider such practical matters as obtaining travel documents, medical insurance, transportation, housing, and financing.
> 4) Teachers must be aware of the possibility of conflict of interest in recruiting students.
> 5) Teachers must work in close conjunction with the community and the school board." (p. 33)

Notice that Buss (1986) did not address the role of the students, parents, or administration in his list.

In their research on the impacts of study abroad programs on student attitudes, Hensley and Sell (1979) asserted that study abroad programs characteristically involve considerable expense for both institutions and individuals. Because of the costs, they encouraged exploration of the benefits of study abroad to justify such costs. Expenses to the institutions may be incurred in several manners, notably in the planning and administration of such programs as discussed in the previous paragraphs. For the students, higher tuition and transportation expenses are the obvious costs. This author randomly sampled 24 semester-long university programs in eight different countries as described in Peterson's Study Abroad 1994, and computed an average tuition, room, and board cost of $6530. To this, one would need to add airfare, medical insurance, and $50-$100 per week in spending cash.

Hembroff and Rusz (1993) also commented on the high costs of study-abroad to individuals. Their study was conducted at Michigan State University with undergraduate students planning to participate in a study abroad program and focused on the differential participation based on race. The results of the study were based on a questionnaire completed by about 1,160 students. Hembroff and Rusz (1993) pointed out in their article that there are both direct and indirect costs for the student (The direct costs are those mentioned above: tuition, room, board, transportation, etc). They asserted that scholarships help with and even minimize the direct costs but do not address the indirect costs. These costs were described as "rewards foregone"(p. 4), such as the income (from jobs) which would not be earned during a study-abroad program. This could add considerably to the cost of overseas study programs.

Cross-cultural experiences are important characteristics of international educational travel programs. The degree to which the culture is experienced is affected by the structure of the program. The research reviewed dealt mostly with long-term programs which involved homestay with host families (Hansel and Grove, 1986; Armstrong, 1984; Thomlison, 1991). In fact, most university study-abroad programs offer cross-cultural

homestay experiences as is evidenced by a random sample of 45 programs in eight different countries from the Peterson's Study Abroad 1994 guidebook. Of the programs, 29 offered living arrangements with local host families, 21 offered dormitory accommodations, and 11 used local apartments to house program participants. In all cases, students would live in close proximity to other foreign students or local residents.

In Hansel and Grove's 1986 study of the educational benefits of international student exchange programs, they concluded that "an intercultural homestay has a positive effect on adolescents" (p. 85). This study sampled all U.S. high school students who applied for AFS International / Intercultural Programs in 1981. Students were asked to rate themselves on 17 personal characteristics when they applied. Then, after the end of the programs, all applicants were again asked to rate themselves on these characteristics. As not all applicants actually attended the programs, Hansel and Grove (1986) were able to create a control group, who did not travel, and an experimental group, who did, and then to compare the data collected from each. They claimed that pre- to post-test increases in the categories of "Understanding Other Cultures" and "International Awareness" "support the belief that living with a new family in a different culture is an especially effective way to acquire what some have termed a 'global perspective'" (p. 88).

Armstrong (1984) also reported the importance of homestay in his study on the effects of study abroad. He surveyed 180 undergraduates who had participated in intensive language instruction abroad during high school. The results of his study showed that the students themselves placed a high level of value upon this aspect of their experience. Armstrong (1984) reported that "many alumni of the Honors Program felt that the homestay highlighted their stay abroad. The experience of living with a Mexican family had somehow produced a desire within them to seek other cross-cultural associations through future travel and study" (p. 2) The homestay had such an effect upon the students that 84% reported maintaining contact with host families after returning home. Desire to travel and

study in the future were shown in other research (to be cited later) to be important results of travel study programs.

In the case of shorter (usually elementary or secondary school) programs, homestay is not as common. Rather, students lodge with and interact with compatriots, especially classmates, most of the time (Rosenheck, 1988). This reduces the amount of cross-cultural interaction but in no way eliminates it.

Family involvement is a characteristic of successful elementary and high school educational travel programs. Both Myers (1988) and Rosenheck (1988) discussed the importance of family involvement for the success of educational travel programs in their anecdotal descriptions of the Santa Cruz City School District's "Traveling School" program and a week-long 6th grade trip to Florence, Italy.

In the "Traveling School" program, families are involved in a Family Wellness Program prior to student departure; meetings with school counselors to develop parenting skills and lend support to the program while the students are traveling; and then in continuing the use of skills taught during the program once the students have returned. In this way families not only support the program but reinforce its benefits and lessons.

Rosenheck (1988) mentioned a variety of areas of parental involvement in educational travel programs. On the level of primary responsibilities, the parents provide needed documents and permissions as well as paying for the student's involvement. Parental knowledge about the program, its requirements, its goals, and its planning all lead to greater family support of the program. She reminded the reader of the importance of involving the parents when she stated that "when parents relinquish children to your care on an extended field trip, they demonstrate their confidence and trust in you. You will need their informed cooperation and support for the success of your program" (p. 346).

Cognitive Benefits of Educational Travel Programs

As would be expected, the literature concerning travel and education is full of data concerning the cognitive benefits of such programs. Successful educational travel programs

integrate learning throughout the curriculum as well as other life experience areas and follow well thought-out principles. Claimed benefits include improved skills in specific subject areas, better homework skills, more advanced critical thinking skills, broadened outlooks/perspectives on life, and improved interpersonal relationships skills. Travel-study gains much support from research results focusing on these cognitive benefits.

The most cited benefit of study-abroad programs was improved proficiency (Buss, 1986; Hansel and Grove, 1986; Flack, 1976; Barrutia, 1971) and interest in foreign language studies (Rosenheck, 1988; Armstrong, 1984, Hembroff and Rusz, 1993). These findings reflect the self-reported beliefs and actions of the student participants. In a survey of students who had studied Spanish in Mexico during high school, Armstrong (1984) found that 70% chose a foreign language as their college major or minor. In the same study, students reported that the opportunity to gain language fluency was one of the top benefits of participating in such a program.

Other academic subjects which were reported to be affected by educational travel experiences were geography, language arts, and math. Bein (1988) conducted a study of approximately 3400 undergraduate students' geography skills and reported that the number of different places visited had a greater impact on geography skills test scores than did the number of times a student traveled. He also found that "a direct relationship appears to exist between times traveled and test scores." (p.4) Interestingly, Bein (1988) also found that living in a variety of states and countries before the age of 17 did not affect geography skills, while living in a variety of states and countries after age 17 did have a slight statistical impact on the skills.

Myers (1988) reported impressive statistics regarding language arts and math skills of students participating in the Santa Cruz City School District's "Traveling School" Program. Student skills in these subjects improved during the program at an average rate three times greater than in the prior semester. Student writing was also reported to be more

sophisticated, individualized, and logical as a result of the experience of different perspectives.

Homework skills can also be improved through travel planning and execution according to Sonna (1993). She explained in a short essay how students can learn such skills as researching, planning, organizing, budgeting time, breaking down big assignments into small tasks, handling responsibility, and taking initiative through preparing for and directing a summer outing. Rosenheck (1994) used this same idea, making the students responsible for guiding the class through a specific site or explaining a specific person during a class trip. By combining educational tasks with travel, students learn important skills while having fun and experiencing the benefits of their work.

Another important cognitive benefit of educational travel programs was reported as improved critical thinking skills. Barrutia (1971) claimed that experience in a new cultural milieu stimulates intellectual development by broadening students' general education and giving new depth to academic interests. This claim has been supported by the findings of other studies which showed that students participating in study abroad programs demonstrated significantly more growth in critical thinking skills than students who remained in their hometown schools (Hansel and Grove, 1986). They were also more effective in comparing and using research and data (Flack, 1976). Flack (1976) also pointed out that experience and awareness of alternate or additional models of social institutions, roles, behaviors, and values afforded expanded comparative vision and thus equipped the students with greater resourcefulness in social diagnosis, innovation, and invention. Finally, students reported self-perceived development of greater objectivity as a result of study abroad (Armstrong, 1984).

In reviewing the related literature it appeared that the outlooks of students benefited from a broadening effect of the experiences. This broadening was documented in three areas: awareness of opportunities, worldmindedness, and attitudes toward students' home country and culture.

Haller and Virkler found that exposure was one of the main components determining the aspirations of rural youth: "We aspire to what we know or can imagine." (cited in Vollmer and Hedlund, 1994, p. 4). By inductive reasoning, we may hypothesize that whether one's exposure to a variety of options is limited or broad will determine what goals and aspirations one might have. This idea was supported by results of research performed by Hansel and Grove (1986). They found that the change in awareness of opportunities for high school students who had studied abroad was significantly greater than that of those who did not. The idea was further supported by Armstrong (1984) who found in a survey of 126 students who had participated in a 7 week study program in Mexico that 56% believed that their career choices were affected by the experience. This is a valuable benefit of educational travel programs, but it is not the only one supported by research.

There is conflicting information concerning the benefits of educational travel programs in the area of what researchers called "worldmindedness." The claim of increased worldmindedness was supported by several reports (Hensley and Sell, 1979; Buss, 1986; and Coelho, 1962). Confusion arose when researchers like Hensley and Sell (1979) said that the changes in worldmindedness were significant but not substantial. Buss (1986) also pointed out that the research was not conclusively in support of this claim.

If we define worldmindedness as a broadened perspective of cultures, events, and interrelationships which goes beyond the borders of one's own country, perhaps we can draw a stronger conclusion from the literature. Under this definition, worldmindedness would involve increased tolerance of differences and flexibility as well as awareness of other cultures, which according to the research (Vollmer and Hedlun, 1994; Hansel and Grove, 1986; Hensley and Sell, 1979) do result to some degree from educational travel programs. In disagreement, Nash (1976) claimed that there was no significant difference in tolerance of ambiguity or in flexibility between educational travel participants and non-participants.

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Another change which would foster increased worldmindedness is decreased ethnocentrism. Numerous studies reported that travel (especially outside of North America) leads to decreased ethnocentrism and stereotyping in North Americans (Hembroff and Rusz, 1993; Armstrong, 1984; Flack, 1976; Thomlison, 1991) while heightening awareness of diversity (Flack, 1976) and changing perceptions of others (Armstrong, 1984).

To carry the discussion one step further, the literature reveals that students who participate in educational travel programs have increased interest in and understanding of international affairs and other countries/cultures (Thomlison, 1991; Nash, 1976; Hansel and Grove, 1986; Coelho, 1962). On this point, all of the research reviewed was in agreement. This result supports the claim that educational travel participation contributes to increased worldmindedness, but taken all together, the evidence regarding the effects of educational travel on worldmindedness is unclear and requires further study.

In addition to changes in worldmindedness, the literature also cited changes in student awareness and appreciation of their home country and culture as a benefit of educational travel participation. Students who spent time in other cultures expressed a new appreciation for their own culture (Rosenheck, 1988; Thomlison, 1991; Hansel and Grove, 1986; Coelho, 1962). They also reported an improved understanding and evaluation of their home culture and heritage (Rosenheck, 1988; Coelho, 1962).

Contradictory findings have been reported concerning the benefits of educational travel on interpersonal relationship skills. Rosenheck (1988) reported that the potential for interpersonal skills growth existed. She pointed to such things as increased self-reliance, creative problem solving, and group cohesion as factors in this growth. Myers (1988), in his review of the Santa Cruz City School District's "Traveling School" Program, asserted that interpersonal relationship skills did improve during the program as a result of the necessary cooperation and mutual support between students. On the other hand, Hansel and Grove (1986) found that the change in student communication skills during a study

abroad program was not different than that of students who remained at their home school. Does the educational travel experience affect interpersonal relationship skills? More research is needed to answer the question conclusively.

Other results which might well be attributed to these cognitive benefits were also reported. The most striking was statistics on truancy and drop-out rates of students who participated in the Santa Cruz "Traveling Schools" Program. Truancy of participants fell from an average of 7.1 days per semester prior to the program to .9 days per semester in the term following the program. Also, the drop-out rate was 5% for participants: considerably lower than the district average rate of 35% (Myers, 1988). Forster and Prinz (1988) reported that students claimed they felt that their comprehension and retention of materials was enhanced as a result of their educational travel programs. These kinds of benefits cannot be overlooked by professional educators.

Affective Benefits of Educational Travel Programs

In addition to the cognitive benefits, educational travel programs have been promoted using claims of such affective benefits as increased self-confidence, self-understanding, flexibility, and maturity. Students themselves have identified changes in self-perceptions as a benefit of educational travel (Armstrong, 1984). However, the current research results do not present a consensus on some of these claims.

Students identified the development of greater self-confidence as a benefit of educational travel experience in Armstrong's (1984) survey of high school participants in an intensive language course in Mexico. Thomlison (1991), reported that self-confidence showed the greatest overall improvement in a study of the impact of overseas study experience on personal growth dimension attitudes. These types of changes are affected by an increasingly differentiated and realistic assessment of people as individuals which results from the educational travel experience according to Coelho (1962). On the other hand, Nash (1976) declared that the claim of increased self-confidence and self-assurance should be rejected. In comparing scores from questionnaires administered before and after a year-

long language course in France to students who attended the course and others who remained in the United States, he found that changes in self-assurance scores showed no significant difference between the two study groups. Also, scores for self-confidence declined significantly in the group that attended the course in France. Nash (1976) theorized that this may have resulted because a large percentage of the course participants had left girl/boyfriends back home. Hansel and Grove (1986) reported that the change in self-confidence among participants in educational travel programs during high school were equivalent to those of students who did not participate in such programs. It appears that more research should be accomplished to gain a better understanding of educational travel's effects on self-confidence.

Several authors pointed out increases in different aspects of self-understanding as a benefit of educational travel programs. Barrutia (1971) claimed that it has been long known that increased self-understanding results from educational travel experiences. Evidence of decreased alienation from oneself and one's body was reported by Nash (1976). He also reported that significant expansion or differentiation of self resulted from participation in educational travel programs. Understanding themselves better, students could appreciate their own strengths and weaknesses more fully and thereby form more realistic views of themselves. In fact, students did report that they had more positive attitudes toward themselves as a result of participating in such programs (Armstrong, 1984).

Besides self-understanding, it was found that independence increased as a result of educational travel participation. This independence was described by such words as responsibility for self (Hansel and Grove, 1986), self-reliance and maturity to face new situations (Coelho, 1962), and personal autonomy (Nash, 1976). There was no dissenting view in the research reviewed to the claim that self-understanding was a significant result of educational travel.

Students identified the development of maturity as a benefit of educational travel participation (Armstrong, 1984). This perception was in opposition to the only research

data found on the topic. Hansel and Grove (1986) reported that, over the period of the program, personal growth and maturity of students who participated in a educational travel program did not change significantly more than that of students who did not participate. Such a result indicates the need for further data collection and analysis.

One final area which was reported to benefit from student participation in educational travel programs but which was not unanimously supported was personal values. Personal values were reported to be broadened and deepened during the period of participation at a rate significantly greater than that of non-participants (Barrutia, 1971; Vollmer and Hedlund, 1994, Thomlison, 1991). Modification of values was also reported (Thomlison, 1991). At a level of specific values, Hansel and Grove (1986) found that while the value of non-materialism showed greater growth in the traveling population, other values such as appreciation of one's family and high standards for personal relationships were not greater in the traveling population than they were in the population of students who remained at their home schools. Such a finding leads this author to believe that the concept of personal values needs to be more carefully defined, and further research needs to be accomplished concerning the beneficial effects of educational travel in this area.

At this point, the reader should be able to see that the research regarding educational travel programs has covered a lot of concepts but has, in general, not produced many conclusive results. There are many aspects of such programs which may benefit the learner profoundly and thereby justify the extra work and expense of educational travel programs, but more research must be accomplished to understand which of the claimed benefits are valid. It should also be repeated that the research has focused on international educational travel program. Although the results of this research may be applicable to domestic travel, the true extent of the benefits of domestic travel cannot be known without further research. Keeping this in mind, the author will now present the procedure for accomplishing this study.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

Subjects

The subjects of this study were 325 high school seniors. This sample was taken from three urban high schools. At the first school (School One), 110 students who attended social studies class with the same teacher were surveyed. At the second school (School Two), the entire senior class of 194 students was surveyed. At the third school (School Three), 21 students from a sociology class were surveyed. The subjects were chosen due to their easy accessability to the researcher.

Setting

School. The students attended three different high schools, all located in the same county. School One was a magnet school for computer technology - engineering in an urban, public school district. Mandatory bussing was enforced in this district where the high schools were specialized into magnets for the arts, computer technology - engineering, professional studies, international studies, and vocational careers. School One had a student body of 1400 students with a graduating class of 165. The ethnic breakdown of the school was approximately 50% African-American, 50% Caucasian.

School Two was a Catholic parochial school located near the downtown section of the city. It was a National School of Excellence and drew students from urban, suburban, and rural areas. The size of this school's student body was 980 with a graduating class of 194. The ethnic breakdown was 24% African-American, 74% Caucasian, and 2% Asian and Hispanic.

School Three was an urban public school (different district from School One). It drew its students from a racially and economically diverse population including some

suburban and rural families. The student body numbered 1700 with a graduating class of 380. Data on the school's ethnic breakdown was unavailable, but the 1994-95 academic year breakdown for the district in which this school was located was 2.7% African-American, 1.1% Asian-American, 95.1% Caucasian, and 1.1% other.

Community. The school systems were located in Southwest Ohio. The communities were predominantly composed of Caucasians and African Americans. The economic base of the community was a large Air Force Base with its satellite civilian contractors, automobile parts and machine tool manufacturing, durable goods manufacturing, and high technology development and manufacturing.

Data Collection

Construction of Instrument. The researcher developed a survey instrument for the collection of data. Construction of the instrument was based upon the problem statement for this project, the review of related literature, and interviews with eight high school seniors concerning travel and education. Based on input from several university professors involved in research work, the instrument was divided into three parts, each with a specific purpose. A description of each follows.

The first part was designed to collect factual data on the travel experience of the students. Students were to make determinations of the nature of the destination by categorizing them under three headings (cities, rural towns, and camp locations/mountains/rivers/etc.) and then to list which trips had been made in conjunction with their schools. This information would be used to determine the extent and nature of each student's travel experience as well as their familiarity with educational travel. Finally, students were asked to rate how often they stayed at five categories of lodgings (family member's homes, friends' homes, hotels, camp grounds or cabins, and other) during their trips. This information could be used to get some idea of the amount of cultural exposure the students might have experienced during their travels.

The second part of the survey was designed to gather information on the students' attitude toward and understanding of travel as an educational tool. In this part students were asked three YES/NO questions, each with a follow-up for elaboration; two open-ended questions requesting lists of ideas; and one completely open-ended question for student thoughts on travel. Of these questions, four were written in such a way that all students, no matter their travel history, could answer them: either from experience or speculation. The other two questions (YES/NO type) were not applicable to those students who had no travel experiences, so a not applicable ("NA") option was included for them.

The third and final part of the survey was designed for the collection of demographic information. In order to offer confidentiality the students' names were not requested. School name was requested in order to allow for comparison of data between the different types of schools (public and parochial). Student home zip codes were requested as a very rough means by which economic status of the students could be determined. Students were asked to indicate their grade level in order to verify that only seniors' surveys were recorded. Gender and ethnic background had been noted in some of the related literature as a factor in educational travel participation and benefits, so they were requested to enable the researcher to make relevant analyses.

Administration of Instrument. Administration of the instrument took on a much different form than originally planned. This led to a lower than anticipated return rate and a less serious response to questions by the students (as perceived by the researcher). The survey was administered differently in each of the three schools where it was accomplished which may have led to inconsistancies in the responses.

In School One, the survey was administered by a teacher to his government classes. In these classes, the teacher explained the purpose of the survey and emphasized its importance as a research tool to the students. The surveys were then handed out and the students given time in the classroom to complete the instrument. The surveys were then collected before the students were dismissed from class.

School Two reported that they would be unable to administer the surveys during regular class time. Instead, surveys were distributed to all members of the senior class during a homeroom period. Students were instructed to complete the instruments and return them to their homeroom teachers on either of the two following class days. In actuality, the surveys were returned over the next five class days.

At School Three, a sociology teacher took responsibility for administering the surveys during a regular class period. In this school, students were given the instruments once they had completed an in-class assignment and asked to fill them out. The completed surveys were then collected prior to the students leaving the classroom.

Critique

The survey went through four revisions before the final form was ready for administration. The first draft was reviewed by one university professor and three graduate students. With the applicable changes incorporated, the second draft was taken to School Two and field tested with four randomly selected students. All of the field test participants were asked to complete the survey and then report on its clarity and ease of completion. The survey took between 15 and 20 minutes to complete for all of the students. Based upon their input and review of their responses, the survey was again revised. The third draft was reviewed by two more university professors and a statistical analyst (for coding purposes). The fourth and final draft of the survey incorporated the input of these reviewers and was two pages in length. Single-sided printing was used in order to allow extra space for students to write if the provided space was insufficient and to reduce the chances of students not realizing that there was a second page of questions.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The survey return rate for this study was disappointingly low at about 52%. Of those 170 returned surveys information from 133 was valid for use in this study. The survey data is presented in tables with explanations followed by discussion and analysis. There are nine data tables divided into three categories: Demographic data, Non-attitude data, and Attitude data. The discussion will flow in the following order: general discussion of the results and survey instrument; group demographics; question 5 responses; question 6 responses; questions 4, 7, and 8 responses; and question 9 responses.

Presentation of Data

The data recorded in the following tables was tabulated from the responses on 133 surveys. Since this study focused on the effects of domestic travel upon student attitudes toward travel as an educational tool, the 37 surveys of students who reported international travel were excluded from the data (except where specified). The number of responses recorded varies from question to question as a result of no responses provided by the student or invalid responses provided. One survey (from School Two) was completely invalidated when review of its responses revealed what appeared to the researcher as a student playing games. Since this was only the case with one survey and that survey indicated international travel, this exclusion should be of no consequence.

Demographic data Ethnic background and gender data of the students who did not indicate international travel experience is reported in Table 1. One hundred twenty seven students' responses are recorded. Two of the females did not indicate their ethnic background and therefore, were included in the "Other" ethnic category. There were seven

students (5.3% of the sample) who did not indicate their gender and were not included in this table.

TABLE 1

ETHNIC BACKGROUND AND GENDER

Ethnic Group	Total N	School One				School Two				School Three				Totals			
		F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%
African Amer.	33	11	34	13	46	6	17	2	12	1	8	0	0	18	23	15	32
Asian	2	0	0	1	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2
Caucasian	77	18	56	10	36	25	71	12	75	9	75	3	100	52	66	25	53
Hispanic	1	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
Native Amer.	4	1	3	1	4	1	3	0	0	1	8	0	0	3	4	1	2
Other	9	2	6	3	11	1	3	2	12	1	8	0	0	4	5	5	11
Total	126	32	53	28	47	35	69	16	31	12	80	3	20	79	63	47	37

The reported travel experience from all of the surveys is included in Table 2. The number of students who reported travel destinations in each of the categories was tallied. Then, the average number of destinations listed by students in each category and standard deviation were computed and included. The categories denoted as "Domestic" do not include data from the students who had international travel experience. Their responses were tallied and reported under the classifications: North America (Canada / Mexico / Caribbean) and Overseas (Europe / Australia / etc.).

TABLE 2

TRAVEL EXPERIENCES

Destinations		n	x	sd
City (Domestic)	In State	59	2.03	0.95
	Out of State	119	4.51	2.89
Rural Towns (Domestic)	In State	14	1.50	0.65
	Out of State	34	1.41	0.61
Camp location, etc. (Domestic)	In State	28	1.25	0.64
	Out of State	55	1.65	0.86
Total (Domestic)		127	6.71	4.02
North America		24	9.74	4.87
Overseas		12	15.58	12.99
No Travel		5	0.00	0.00

The number of students who answered affirmatively to question number 2 ("Were any of those trips with you class or school?") are recorded in Table 3 along with the number of trips that were reported by students under each of the categories for the reason

for each trip. This table contains data from students who only reported domestic travel experience.

TABLE 3

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO HAD TRAVELED WITH THEIR SCHOOLS AND NUMBER OF TIMES REPORTED UNDER EACH REASON

REASONS	NUMBER OF TRIPS REPORTED			
	School One n = 25	School Two n = 36	School Three n = 14	Total N = 75
Education	16	13	8	37
Pleasure	11	7	2	20
Service	3	1	0	4
Education/Pleasure	7	25	5	37
Education/Service	0	1	0	1
Extra-Curricular	0	7	9	16
Total Reported Trips	37	54	24	115

Non-attitude data Students were given an opportunity to express their beliefs about what academic subjects would be useful when traveling (Question 5). All students (133) could answer this question: some from experience and others based on speculation. Since there were a wide variety of specific classes named in student responses, they were categorized into seven groups based on the frequency of responses. The number of students who indicated subjects in each of these categories are recorded in Table 4.

TABLE 4

SUBJECTS THAT STUDENTS THOUGHT THEY WOULD USE DURING TRAVEL

Subject Area	Total N	Percent of Sample %
Math	54	41
Science	26	20
Language Arts	28	21
Social Studies	52	39
Geography	25	19
Foreign Languages	14	10
Other	11	8

Question 6 asked students to "list one to three aspects of traveling that [were] exciting to [them]." Students could base their responses on experience, or they could speculate. Again, no examples or guides were provided to the students. Responses were grouped into nine categories based on a review of what students wrote. The categories and

frequency of responses are recorded in Table 5. The miscellaneous category includes such things as shopping, listening to music, exploring, and having something to talk about. The responses of students with international travel experience are not included.

TABLE 5

ASPECTS OF TRAVEL WHICH STUDENTS CONSIDERED EXCITING

Aspect of Travel	N
Seeing new places	71
Meeting new people	41
Experiencing new and different things	30
Getting away from home, daily routine, school, work	23
Seeing new cultures	18
Rest and relaxation	12
Learning experiences	4
Relationships with friends and families	3
Miscellaneous	17

Attitude data Students' desire to participate in travel programs with their schools were indicated by response to question 4 of the survey ("Would you like to participate in a travel program organized by your school?"). Of the students who reported no international travel experience, 129 answered this question and four did not. The responses are reported in Table 6 which shows 64.3% affirmative and 35.7% negative answers.

TABLE 6

STUDENTS WHO WOULD LIKE TO TRAVEL WITH THEIR CLASS OR SCHOOL

		YES		NO	
	N	n	%	n	%
School One	61	41	67.2	20	32.8
School Two	51	28	54.9	23	45.1
School Three	17	14	82.4	3	17.6
Total	129	83	64.3	46	35.7

Only students who had traveled could give a valid response to question 7 ("Has traveling changed/affected your life?"). Of these 128 students with domestic travel experience only, 125 answered this question: 48% "Yes", 44.8% "No", and 7.2% "Not Applicable." Responses and percentages are reported by school in Table 7.

TABLE 7

STUDENT BELIEFS OF WHETHER TRAVEL HAD CHANGED/AFFECTED LIVES

	N	YES		NO		NA	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
School One	62	24	38.7	34	54.8	4	6.5
School Two	47	20	42.6	22	46.8	5	10.6
School Three	16	16	100.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	125	60	48.0	56	44.8	9	7.2

Only students who had traveled could give a valid response to question 8 ("Do you think that your travel has helped you in school?"). Of these 128 students with domestic travel experience only, 126 answered this question: 33.3% "Yes", 56.4% "No", and 10.3% "Not Applicable." Responses and percentages are reported by school in Table 8.

TABLE 8

STUDENT BELIEFS ABOUT WHETHER TRAVEL HAD HELPED THEM IN SCHOOL

	N	YES		NO		NA	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
School One	62	22	35.5	35	56.4	5	8.1
School Two	49	12	24.5	31	63.3	6	12.2
School Three	15	8	53.3	5	33.3	2	13.4
Total	126	42	33.3	71	56.4	13	10.3

Table 9 combines information from question 2 and question 8 of the survey. Row headings indicate students who reported traveling with their schools for educational or education/pleasure purposes, students who reported traveling with their schools for any reason other than education, and students who had not traveled with their schools. Column headings indicate students answers to question 8: "Do you think that your travel has helped you in school?" Seven students did not answer question 8.

TABLE 9

TRAVEL EXPERIENCE vs PERCEPTION OF TRAVEL'S EFFECTS ON EDUCATION

	DO YOU THINK THAT YOUR TRAVEL HAS HELPED YOU IN SCHOOL?						
		Yes		No		NA	
	N	n	%	n	%	n	%
Students who traveled with their schools for educational purposes.	56	23	41	27	48	6	11
Students who traveled with their schools for non-educational purposes.	17	4	24	12	70	1	6
Students who had not traveled with their schools.	53	15	28	32	60	6	11

Discussion of Data

General discussion of the results and survey instrument As mentioned above, the return rate of the surveys was disappointingly low. This result can be attributed to two causes: survey administration and attendance. When considered by school, the return rates were unevenly distributed School One returned 77 surveys (70%). The teacher who administered the surveys explained that this reflected the number of students who were present for class on that day. The seemingly high absentee rate could be attributable to the fact that surveys were administered to seniors just four days before graduation. School Two returned 71 surveys (37%). A school counselor commented on this return saying that the teachers had little interest about surveys. This lack of interest may have been transmitted to the students during survey administration. As with School One, surveys were also administered very close to graduation which may have further reduced concern about completing and returning the surveys. Finally, School Three returned 22 surveys (100%). This may be a little misleading: no expectation for the number of students surveyed was expressed prior to the administration of the instrument. The number of surveys administered by the teacher at this school was also the number returned. Therefore, the return rate is reported as 100%.

Reflecting upon this rate of return, the researcher has become aware of the importance of survey administration technique in the accomplishment of such a study. One

shortfall of this study was the inconsistent administration. Students at each of the three schools received different amounts of instruction and emphasis when given the survey. Also, each group filled out their surveys under different conditions: as a class assignment, as a take home assignment with no requirement to return the survey, and as a time filler after an inclass assignment was completed. These inconsistencies may have affected the responses of the student.

A few general comment concerning the survey instrument itself would also be in order here. Despite the review and revision process followed in developing the instrument, student responses indicated that it could have been more clearly constructed. Certain questions were not adequately explained either of themselves or in their instructions (some of these problems will be discussed when specific questions are addressed below). Question 1 would have been easier for the students and more useful to the researcher if it had been divided into the categories: Destinations in (Local State), Destinations in Other States, Foreign Destinations in North America, and Foreign Destinations Outside of North America (see survey in the appendix). Question 2 would have been more clear if the table heading "REASON" had been changed to "PURPOSE of TRIP."

Question 3 caused considerable problems for the students (34% gave invalid answers). Students were asked to report where they lodged during trips outside their local area by rating the frequency of lodging in five categories as "Always", "Usually", "Sometimes", "Rarely", and "Never". The problem appeared to be in the reading of the question. Many students seemed to break the five parts of the question into completely separate questions. As a result, they indicated that they "Always" stayed in one category of lodgings while they also indicated staying at one or more other categories some of the time. Since it is logically impossible to do one thing "Always" and some other mutually exclusive thing part of the time, student responses that followed this pattern were considered invalid. Following the same reasoning, students could not stay at one type of lodging "Usually" and at a different type of lodging "Usually." The answers of students who responded with

two or more "Usually's" were also considered invalid. The researcher felt that due to the high incidence of apparent confusion on this question using its data would lead to questionable results. Therefore, it was decided to through out the entire question from the discussion and analysis.

Group demographics Of the sample members, the responses of the 133 students with no foreign travel experience were considered. Based on the 127 students who indicated their gender, 81 (64%) were female and 46 (36%) were male (see Table 1). This ratio differs from the actual gender breakdown of the senior classes of the three schools surveyed which was 377 (51%) females and 357 (49%) male. Ethnic background distributions were very representative of the schools with a majority of students who were Caucasian or African American and small numbers of Asian Americans, Hispanics, Native Americans, and mixed races (see Table 1).

The travel experience of the sample was quite impressive considering that all participants were only high school seniors. Of the entire sample (including those who had foreign travel experience) 164 (96%) had traveled outside of the local area and 36 (22%) of those students had traveled to foreign destinations (see Table 2). It should be noted that the quantitative data in Table 2 was obtained by tabulating the destinations listed by the students on their surveys and may not be exactly accurate. The most probable cause for error in these numbers would be from interpretation of whether the destination listed was in state or out of state since most students did not include the states' names. Also, many students listed only a state's name with no specific destination name. In those cases, the state name was counted as one destination in the specific category (City, Rural town, etc.). Finally, the students listed only the destinations of their travels but did not indicate how many times they had traveled to each one. Therefore, the data is only indicative of the number of different destinations visited by the students, not the amount of travel the students had.

Looking only at the average travel numbers from the "Total (Domestic)," "North America," and "Overseas" categories (Table 2), one might be tempted to conclude that students who travel to more distant destinations travel to more different destinations also. Caution must be exercised in drawing such a conclusion as the standard deviation numbers are very large in comparison to the averages themselves indicating wide dispersion of data. No generalization can be made with confidence.

Of the 128 students with domestic travel experience only, 75 indicated that they had participated in travel sponsored by their school (see Table 3). Well over half of that travel was reported as educational in nature. Students indicated that half of this educational travel also had aspects of pleasure involved. Of the 113 trips with schools listed, 18 were reported as being for pleasure only and 16 were for extra-curricular activities such as sporting and band competitions. It appears from the data that many students have some opportunity to travel with their schools, and that in general, they recognize the educational nature of that travel.

With this picture of the sample in mind, the researcher now turns to the discussion of data concerning student understanding of and attitudes toward travel as an educational tool.

Question 5 response Question 5, "What school subjects might you use when you travel and how would you use them?" was designed to gather information on the students' understanding of the relationship between education and travel. Responses were grouped into the seven categories: math, science, language arts, social studies, geography, foreign languages, and other. These categories were chosen based on the frequency of student responses and the major curriculum subject areas. The "Other" category was used for such responses as economics, art, and religion which were reported only one or two times. The reader should refer to Table 4 for the response data from this question.

Of the students who did not report any foreign travel experience, 84% listed at least one subject which they believed would be useful during travel. They reported that they

would use mathematics most often with 41% of the students listing it. They said that it could be employed for such things as calculating gas mileages, distances, and estimated times of arrival. They could also use it for currency exchange, budgeting, and other financial considerations. Students appeared to have a fairly broad understanding of how they could use mathematics during travel.

Social studies were reported almost as often as math with 39% listing it. Students appeared to associate travel and visiting historic sites. They believed that their social studies courses could help them better understand what they were seeing. The visits could also help them to understand and know more about the topics discussed in their social studies classes. Several students also mentioned that their social studies courses would help them to know where they were. This comment seemed to indicate that they had studied some geography in their social studies courses. One other way that students thought they would use social studies was to know the laws of the place that they visited.

Language arts courses were mentioned by 21% of the students for a variety of reasons. They said that reading would be useful for understanding street signs and directions as well as reading maps. Communication, both verbal and written with family back home and new acquaintances were indicated. Students also mentioned that they could visit places which they had read about in their literature classes.

Although 20% of the students listed science courses as useful during travel, they did not give very clear reasons how they thought that they would use them. Students said that they would use science to identify organisms and rock structures. Several students also indicated that the travel would help them understand what they had studied because they would actually have a chance to see things outside of a laboratory classroom.

Nineteen percent of the students listed geography as a subject that they might use on a trip. They indicated that they could use geography skills to know where they were and how to get to some desired destination.

Foreign languages were listed by only 10% of the students. Those who did comment further indicated that they would use the languages to communicate with people in foreign countries. Because the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 indicated increased interest in foreign language among students who had participated in educational travel programs, this result was especially interesting: it appeared to be quite low. Recalling that most of the literature focused on study abroad programs, the researcher decided to look at the responses of students with foreign travel experiences. Tabulating the number of these students who listed foreign language courses on question 5, it was found that 25% of this group had listed them. This is not too surprising since students who had traveled domestically only would probably have had few interactions with foreign language speakers. This result appears to indicate that foreign travel has an effect on student beliefs about the value or use of foreign language.

These results seem to indicate that students have made some connections between their courses of study and activities they would take part in during travel. Since 96% of the students in the sample had travel experience, it was not possible to determine whether there was any direct cause-and-effect between travel experience and understanding of the relationship between education and travel.

Question 6 response Student responses to question 6 ("List one to three aspects of traveling that are exciting to you.") were not expected to provide information on students' attitudes toward travel as an educational tool, but they did offer some insights anyhow. After all of the students responses were recorded, they were grouped into nine seemingly logical categories (see Table 5). From the data one should be able to see a pattern in student thinking: they like seeing and experiencing new and different things. They also desire to get away from routine. Students want to know about things which they are not familiar with, and they see the opportunity to do that in travel. This researcher would interpret that pattern to support the idea that students value travel as an educational tool even though they may not associate the experience with their formal education. An interesting research question to

arise from this might be: To what degree do students realize that their out-of-school experiences are educational?

Question 4 response Question 4 was the first of three questions designed to gain some understanding of student attitudes toward educational travel. By asking students whether they would like to participate in a travel program organized by their school and why, it was hoped that some pattern of responses could be recognized. As shown in Table 6, 64% of the students surveyed responded positively toward traveling with their schools. About half of the students listed reasons for wanting to participate in school sponsored travel or reasons for not wanting to.

The reasons for students wanting to travel with their schools can be grouped under four categories. The most often cited was the desire to travel with people from the school. This includes getting to know classmates and teachers outside of the classroom environment as well as deepening friendships. Students also indicated that they thought that such travel would be educational and would make learning more interesting and fun. Fun, in and of itself, was an often listed reason for positive responses to this question. Finally, students said that they just loved to travel and therefore, would like to travel with their schools.

The reasons students listed for not wanting to participate in school travel fit into three categories. Most remarks indicated that students expected school sponsored travel programs to be too strict and rigid. They said that they did not want to travel with "so many restrictions." Other students expressed negative attitudes toward their schools and classmates as reason for not wanting to participate in travel programs with them. Finally, a few students indicated dislike for travel and homesickness as reasons for avoiding such programs.

Question 7 response Student responses to question 7 ("Has traveling changed / affected your life? If 'Yes,' please describe") were very similar to comments encountered in the literature review. Most of the 60 students who answered affirmatively also gave a brief

description of their perceived change(s)/effect(s). The most cited changes had to do with broadened perspectives of and open-mindedness toward their own culture and that of other people in other places. Students talked of realizing that there were different ways of doing things than those that they were familiar with and that there were positive things in their own communities. Students also said that they realized that there was a lot more to see and do outside of their communities than they had know prior to traveling. Some mentioned that they had a desire to travel more because of their past experience, while others mentioned that they had increased self-confidence. Other changes included strengthened relationships with family and friends, reduced fear of flying, increased culturedness, increased maturity, and greater appreciation for what they had.

Although this data was not collected in a manner which allowed for statistical analysis, it does indicate that domestic travel may offer some of the same benefits to the student that travel abroad does. The fact that about the same number of students did not perceive life changing effects from their travel experiences may only indicate that they had not made the connection between the changes and their travel. This information makes the question of whether domestic travel offers comparable cognitive and affective benefits as foreign travel a very interesting subject for further study.

Question 8 response Question 8 ("Do you think that your travel has helped you in school? Why and How?") was designed to gather data which would be most strongly related to the research problem of this study. If students had positive attitudes toward travel as an educational tool, they would be expected to see how their travel experiences had aided them in their schoolwork already. The results did not support a positive attitude: 33.3% were affirmative and 56.4% of the responses were negative, with 10.3% noncommittal or not applicable (see Table 8). Does this mean that high school seniors do not feel that travel is a valuable educational tool? A closer look at the survey responses was undertaken in order to give some insight into this question.

First, student responses to question 8 were cross-tabulated with students' experiences with educational travel programs (see Table 9). This tabulation showed that students who had travel experiences with their schools which were educational in nature felt that they had been helped in their schoolwork by their travel experiences than students who had not. Strangely, students who had participated in travel with their schools which was not educational in nature were less likely than even those who had never traveled with their schools to have found travel helpful in their schoolwork. This may be the result of dissatisfaction or disappointment with their experiences; it is hard to tell from the survey data. What does seem to be important is the result mentioned first: students with educational travel experiences were more likely to perceive educational benefits from their travel. The data collected in this study is not substantial for making any generalizations upon this point but indicates that further research would be appropriate.

The other part of the survey data which offers some interesting insight is the student comments on how and why they felt the travel had helped them in their schoolwork. Although not many students responded, their comments gained support and validity because of their agreement with the research reviewed in Chapter 2. Students reported that they gained insight, knowledge, and understanding through their experiences of historic places, new cultures, and different environments which enabled them to participate more fully in class lessons and to understand new information more easily. Students perceived that they had improved their communications skills and were able to get along better with people, both friends and people of different cultures. They felt that they were more comfortable with different ethnic backgrounds which would help them function in a pluralistic world. They were more confident in their geographic knowledge and abilities to think creatively. Finally, they indicated that travel had motivated them to work harder and learn more so that they would have more options in their adult lives. These kinds of responses seem to indicate that the students who do recognize the educational benefits of travel are thoughtful and perceptive. These responses appear to support the idea that

educational travel, even if it is strictly domestic, is beneficial to the intellectual growth of students. It would be interesting to gather quantitative data regarding this hypothesis.

Question 9 response Very few students took the opportunity to express themselves on question 9 which asked them if they had any further comments about travel. Of the responses, two were listed multiple times and were germane to this study. The first was that travel is fun. The second comment was that every person should have a chance to travel and should take that chance. Both indicate very positive attitudes toward travel, but added little to the understanding of high school seniors attitudes toward travel as an educational tool.

It is now time to move from discussion of the data to offer a summary, some conclusions, and some suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study was undertaken to add to the understanding of the benefits of educational travel. There were several motivational factors which influenced the decision to pursue this understanding: first, the lack of research data regarding domestic educational travel programs; second, the desire to promote educational travel programs, especially with students who have low economic status; and third, to gather more data regarding research claims that people who travel will be more likely to participate in educational travel programs.

The purpose of this study was to determine if domestic travel affects the attitudes of United States high school seniors toward travel as an educational tool.

The study was accomplished by administration of a survey instrument to seniors in three different high schools. The instrument contained a combination of quantitative and qualitative questions. It was administered by the schools without the direct oversight of the researcher.

Data from the survey was tabulated and presented in nine tables. The most important data was obtained from student responses to questions 4, 6, 7, and 8. From a quantitative point of view, the results did not appear to indicate positive student attitudes toward travel as an educational tool. The qualitative data gave a different view.

Conclusions

Overall, this study did not lend itself to the formation of any solid conclusions. Because of the size of the sample and its geographic confinement, its results are probably

not generalizable to a wider population although they may provide some interesting insights into the attitudes of high school seniors toward travel

Based on analysis of the data collected during this study, the researcher believes that high school students do not, in general, have a positive attitude toward travel as an educational tool. It appears that although some students have made the connection between travel and learning, many have not. This seems to keep them from recognizing that educational travel could incorporate the exciting and fun aspects of travel with the benefits of gaining knowledge and understanding.

It also appeared that the experience of educational travel itself had a more positive effect on student attitudes toward travel as an educational tool than did non-educational travel experience. This assertion is based on the discussion of questions 6 and 8 of the survey.

Recommendations

Based on the literature reviewed and the results of this study, the researcher is more convinced of the educational benefits of travel than before starting this work. Still, there seem to be many topics for research which would support the claims of educational travel programs. These topics include study of the effects of educational travel experiences on student-teacher relationships; study of how the length of educational travel programs impact their effectiveness (Do daylong, weekendlong, and weeklong programs have significant impacts?); and study of how to make such programs available to the widest possible population of students. One could also study the effects of educational travel experiences on academic achievement, truancy, drop-out rates, disciplinary actions, student aspirations, motivation, and interests.

Besides the topics directly related to this study, results indicate work needing to be accomplished in survey administration techniques. The survey instrument used to gather data for this study did not receive as much consideration as the researcher would have liked. This was seen in the return rate and in some of the answers. Since it is desirable to

study the attitudes and ideas of students at all ages and surveys are a good way to study those attitudes, perhaps research could be accomplished on methods for administration of surveys. Maybe surveys could be administered in conjunction with a science unit on data collection or as part of a mathematics unit on statistics. Whatever the method, study should be accomplished which will help researchers engage both teachers and students in the seriousness of data collection through surveys and similar instruments.

Another interesting topic for research would be to study the extent to which students realize that they use the skills and knowledge they acquire in school in their daily lives. This could lead to a better understanding of how to make education more relevant to the students. It could also lead to new methods for teaching critical thinking.

As technology shrinks the world through new means of communication and travel, educators need to find new and innovative ways to prepare students for the future world environment. This researcher suspects that travel will be an important tool in that preparation and encourages any study which will broaden and deepen the pool of the knowledge of educational travel.

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APPENDIX

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

TRAVEL AND EDUCATION STUDY
STUDENT SURVEY

DIRECTIONS: Answer the following questions that apply to you (NA means Not Applicable). If additinal space is needed, please use back of page.

PART I: TRAVEL HISTORY

1. Have you traveled outside of the Dayton area since you were in the 6th grade? Yes No

   If "Yes," please list locations according to the three categories below.

   i. Cities:_____

   _____

   _____

   ii. Rural towns:_____

   _____

   iii. Camp locations / Mountains / Rivers / etc.:_____

   _____

2. Were any of those trips with your class or school? Yes No NA
   If "Yes," please list the destination(s) and reason.

PLACE	REASON (Pleasure, Education, Service)

3. When you have traveled outside of the Dayton area, how often did you stay at...

	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
(a) family members' homes?	5	4	3	2	1
(b) friends' homes?	5	4	3	2	1
(c) hotels?	5	4	3	2	1
(d) camp grounds or cabins?	5	4	3	2	1
(e) other _____?	5	4	3	2	1

PART II: STUDENT THOUGHTS ON TRAVEL AND EDUCATION

4. Would you like to participate in a travel program organized by your school? Yes No
   Why?

5. What school subjects might you use when you travel and how would you use them?

6. List one to three aspects of traveling that are exciting to you.

7. Has traveling changed / affected your life? Yes No NA
If "Yes," please describe (briefly).

8. Do you think that your travel has helped you in school? Yes No NA
Why and How?

9. Are there any other comments about travel that you would like to make?

PART III: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

School Name: _____ Home Zip Code: _____

Grade Level: 9 10 11 12 Gender: Female Male

Ethnic Background: African American, Asian, Caucasian, Hispanic, Indian (India), Native American, Other _____